

TRANSVERSE MERCATOR PROJECTION

CONTOUR INTERVAL 400 METRES

SUPPLEMENTARY CONTOURS (DASHED) AT 200 METRE INTERVAL

10 NAUTICAL MILES

10 STATUTE MILES

10 KILOMETRES

The horizontal and vertical control was established by

photogrammetric triangulation using orbit constraints

1,735,200 metres is expressed as 5200 metres

Relative horizontal accuracy is ±1184 metres expressed at

Contours and spot elevations are expressed as radius vectors in metres

with the first three digits omitted. For example, a radius vector of

Vertical accuracy ranges from ± 97 metres in center to ± 585 metres at north and south ends of map, expressed at 90 percent probability

and is based on Lunar Orbiter V ephemeris data

dated 15 Oct. 1968

90 percent probability

and the extent of rim deposits and satellite craters was prepared from telescopic observations by Schmitt, Trask, and Shoemaker (1967).

GEOLOGIC SUMMARY

Copernicus lies northwest of the center of the nearside, at 10° north latitude, 20° west longitude. The crater is in Oceanus Procellarum 100 km south of the Carpathian Mountains, which form the southern rim of the Imbrium basin. Regional relations show that the material on which Copernicus is superposed is mainly mare of Imbrian age. Protruding through the mare are numerous small massifs and island hummocks of the Alpes and Fra Mauro Formations (Schmitt and others, 1967; Wilhelms and McCauley, 1971), premare rocks believed to represent Imbrium-basin ejecta and pre-Imbrian rocks that were structurally displaced by the Imbrium event. The formation of Copernicus obliterated any vestige of landforms associated with the Imbrian and pre-Imbrian units in the map area. but the truncated edges of these units probably are exposed in the walls and central peaks of the crater. A single Eratosthenian postmare crater in the northwest part of the map area

barely shows through the Copernicus rim deposits. Copernicus is 95 km wide and 3-4 km deep. Its rim stands a kilometre above the surrounding mare plain. In form, Copernicus is typical of large fresh-appearing lunar craters. Hummocky ground beyond the rim crests breaks off sharply at the inward-facing scarp of the crater wall, below which a series of terraces descend to the crater floor. In the center of the crudely level floor a cluster of peaks rises to a height of 1 km. Fluid material that ponded or flowed downhill occurs on the rim, wall, and floor. These features could have been formed by an impact event in which ejecta were deposited on the rim of the growing crater, and the walls of the crater slumped inward as the center was uplifted. Afterward, parts of the ejecta that were molten or partly molten drained downhill and

RIM MATERIALS

ponded in the crater floor and other depressions.

As recognized in 1:1,000,000-scale mapping, the rim of Copernicus is characterized by large concentric or branching hummocks out to ½-1 crater radius, and beyond that by radial ridges (Schmitt and others, 1967). Finer surface textures are used here to distinguish four facies of rim deposits within the map area. These fine textures may represent only the upper part of the rim deposit and not the full thickness. Smooth rim material (unit rs) forms the outermost of these and very roughly coincides with the radially ridged terrane recognized at 1:1.000.000 scale. This unit consists of large, irregular, smooth-surfaced, subdued hills, which grade toward the crater into material that is prominently textured with dunes or ridges radial to Copernicus, mapped as radial rim material (unit rr). Both of these facies contain few blocks. They are interpreted as mainly fine-grained fragmental debris that was deposited by radial flowage from the crater. Disappearance of the radial dunes outward

suggests dissipation of the flow. The radial facies overlies or locally merges inward with blocky materials with sharp relief next to the crater. Most of this inner zone is mapped as concentric rim material (unit rc), in which numerous striations concentric to Copernicus are superposed on broad, low swells. These striations probably include dunes, but some show fault offset and are evidently close-spaced faults and fractures. On parts of the rim that have slumped into the crater, these close-spaced concentric fractures commonly show offset parallel to the slumps: some both inside and outside the rim crest may have been caused by relaxation toward the slump faces. A facies of angular rim material (unit ra) locally forms rugged hills and valleys close to the crater. The sharp relief and blocky surface of both this and the entric rim unit suggest that their upper surface was swept clean of fine material. The width of the rim zone that appears eroded is approximately one-third of a crater radius.

STRUCTURE OF THE CRATER

The walls of Copernicus descend in a series of slump terraces that become progressively note irregular and jumbled closer to the crater floor. With the exception of a large slump is the southeast, most terrages are tilted away from the crater. This backward tilting is analogous to "reverse drag," and indicated that the underlying slip surfaces are concave upward (Hamblin, 1965). Therefore the slumps are probably not the result of undermining as in caldera collapse, where inward tilting is the rule (Howard, 1972a). Slumped walls are found in nearly all large, fresh-appearing craters that have central peaks. Dence (1968) suggested that slumping causes the central uplift in terrestrial craters. The central peaks of Copernicus formed early in the cratering event. They are lapped by

floor materials, and two small peaks just southeast of the mapped central peaks are coated by the cracked floor material. These two peaks are therefore mapped as hummocky floor material. The central peaks are believed to be analogous to central uplifts in terrestrial impact structures and certain experimental craters. If so, they expose rock uplifted from beneath the crater floor on the order of one-tenth the crater diameter (Howard and others. 1972), and they formed during the cratering event (Milton and others, 1972; Roddy, 1968) by inward movement of country rock (Wilshire and Howard, 1968). This motion would appear to balance the downward and inward gliding of the wall slumps. The rising central uplift may have withdrawn material from beneath the walls to cause slumping or the slumped crater walls may have forced up the central uplift.

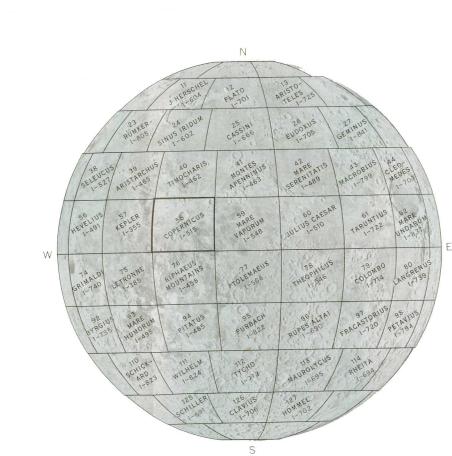
Hummocks on the crater floor merge outward with the wall slumps and inward with the central peaks, suggesting a continuity between the slumps and the peaks. Some of the hummocks and central peaks are compared to cinder cones by Hartmann (1968), Lowman (1969), Kosofsky and El-Baz (1970), and Green (1971). The resemblances seem superficial and may be explained by random impact pits on a few of the hummocks and by an oblique foreshortened view in one photograph of the central peaks. The hummocks may be partly the upthrust toes of the slumps. In some terrestrial astroblemes, the structural zone analogous to that occupied by the hummocks in Copernicus is characterized by thrust slivers displaced toward the center of the crater (Offield and others, 1970) or by complex steep basins and domes (Wilshire and others, 1972).

FLOW DEPOSITS

Fluid materials ponded or flowed downhill on the major units so far described. These materials solidified or welded and are now cracked and are blocky where cratered or exposed as ledges. Similar flow features are seen with even greater clarity at the younger craters Tycho, Aristarchus, and King (Shoemaker and others, 1968; Gault and others, 1968; Crittenden, 1968; Lowman, 1969; Strom and Fielder, 1970; Moore, 1968, 1971; Cruikshank and Wood, 1972; Howard, 1971, 1972b; Strom and Whitaker, 1971; El-Baz, 1969, 1972; Young and others, 1972). The fluid materials can be explained as impact melts. The thickest accumulation forms the textured material (unit ft) in the northern part of the crater floor. Irregular tension cracks in this material show that it contracted as it solidified. This same fissured material coats most or all the hummocks (unit fh) in the floor and forms isolated terraces along the west edge of the floor. Together these indicate that the level of the fluid was originally much higher and has subsided. The amount of subsidence is on the order of 200 m, the height of the biggest coated hummocks. Yet the present thickness of textured floor material is no greater than 100-200 m, even where it is deepest, for isolated hummocks indicate that the underlying hummocky ground is only thinly covered. Rimless pit craters in the floor material (Hartmann, 1968) may imply that some of the fluid drained downward, possibly into underlying breccia. The cracks in the floor material indicate that in addition the fluid compressed and contracted, so that it originally may have been full of

voids, as in a welded tuff. Numerous small depressions on the crater wall and rim are filled to a level surface by material (unit p) that has ponded. Greeley and Gault (1971) interpret crater counts to mean that small collapse pits are present in these ponds on the wall. Most ponds have no apparent source other than local slopes, and it appears as if the runoff from local drainage basins ponded in low places. This can be explained if partly molten ejecta had coated the walls and rim of the crater, and the most mobile fractions drained downhill. Solidified melt, or at least welded material, coats nearly all the slumped walls and the near part of the rim (in units rc and ra), as indicated by cracked, blocky, hard-rock veneers that are exposed in the walls and the top of the wall scarp. Thick accumulations of cracked material coat the lower parts of the walls and appear gradational with the crater floor. Patches of pond material extend to the outer limits of the radial rim facies, implying that the ejecta had a substantial content of melt out to a distance slightly greater than half a crater radius beyond the rim crest. The suevite at the Ries structure in Germany (Hörz, 1965; Dennis, 1971) has

a comparable distribution. Leveed flow channels and lobes demonstrate that fluids flowed downhill on parts of the crater rim and on the walls (Crittenden, 1967; Lowman, 1969; Kosofsky and El-Baz, 1970). Some of these drained into or out of patches of pond material (Lowman, 1969) or into the crater floor. Many head in amphitheaters and can be accounted for if parts of hills collapsed by gravity. These are common on the angular rim material; and amphitheaters and channels account for some of the rugged topography of this unit. In comparison to the ponded material, the leveed channels and flow lobes represent fluid that was generally more viscous, possibly because it contained a higher proportion of unmelted xenoliths. The fluid materials thus flowed downhill after radial flow had passed across the crater rim and after the walls had slumped. They may be parts of the ejecta blanket that remained fluid, or may be fallback that settled back on the ground after radial flowage ceased. Possibly the ejecta were partly molten and partly volatilized, so that gasses as well as melts contributed to their fluidity.



INDEX MAP OF THE EARTHSIDE HEMISPHERE OF THE MOON Number above quadrangle name refers to lunar base chart (LAC series); number below refers to published geologic map

The features described can be explained if Copernicus was formed by a catastrophic impact. The impact excavated a crater and uplifted the rim. As the thick ejecta blanket was deposited, continued radial outward flow of cratered material swept clean the surface of part of the blanket. Farther out where the flow dissipated, streamlined radial dunes were deposited, and beyond that, a smooth blanket. The crater walls slid inward, and the center of the crater was uplifted. Parts of the ejecta or late fallback remained fluid - probably molten — and ran downhill to pond in depressions. A thick accumulation of impact melt in the crater floor shrank by compression of voids and may have drained into underlying

FEATURES YOUNGER THAN COPERNICUS

Patches of smooth, sparsely cratered fill material (unit Cf) occupy some low parts of the floor of Copernicus. This unit may be mass-wasted detritus or post-Copernicus volcanic materials. Small craters also postdate the formation of Copernicus. Some of them form clusters and probably are secondary-impact features. At the north edge of the map area is one of a family of dark-halo craters (unit Ccd3) that pock the outer part of the Copernicus piecta blanket; these may be impact craters that excavated dark mare basalt from beneath the ejecta. Schmitt, Trask, and Shoemaker (1967) recognize a buried peninsula of premare rocks extending toward Copernicus from the northwest. If the dark-halo crater is correctly interpreted here, then this peninsula stops short of the map area, and mare basalt is present beneath most or all the Copernicus ejecta in the map area.

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GEOLOGIC MAP OF THE CRATER COPERNICUS

Prepared on behalf of the National Aeronautics and Space

Dedicated to the astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus 500 years after

Administration under contract No. W13, 130

INDEX MAP OF THE COPERNICUS QUADRANGLE

~16-17 percent

-11-12 percent